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for Teachers of
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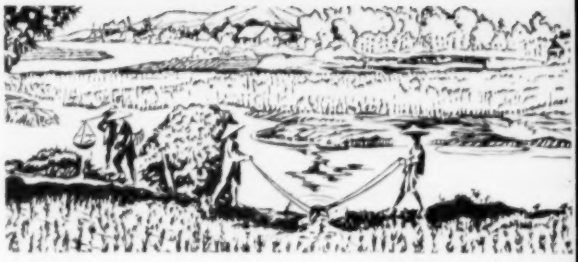

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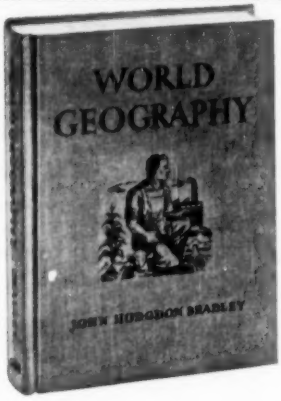

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1. Railroad from Corumba, Brazil to Santa Cruz, Bolivia completed.
2. City of Eva Perón, Argentina, changed back to La Plata.
3. Dique Canal completed in Colombia.
4. Dam and reservoir on Rio Negro in Uruguay completed.
5. Site of 1956 International Geographical Union quadrennial meeting in Rio de Janeiro.

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TESTING GEOGRAPHICAL INTEREST BY A VISUAL METHOD

NEVILLE V. SCARFE
University of Manitoba

The purpose of this experiment was to obtain some facts about the ability of ten year to eleven year old pupils to understand what is shown in physical geography photographs. The general purpose may be broken down into three specific aspects.

1. The ability of these children to understand what is shown in photographs of physical geography. Do they recognize or know what is shown? Do they see the photographs in their proper perspective?
2. The nature of the children's interest in the features represented. Are they interested because the photographs represent some place they have visited or lived in? Are they interested because of the various aspects of living in such regions, that is, certain types of work, hobbies or sports? Are they more interested in photographs of inhabited areas than unoccupied areas?
3. The extent of the children's interest in the features represented. Are they interested in how these things were formed? Are they interested in the effects of the things shown on: (1) other physical conditions? and/or (2) human life? Do they want factual information regarding the photographs. From which picture do they learn most?

MATERIALS

Three photographs showing three contrasting types of physical landscape:

Picture 1. A photograph of rural scenery in Devonshire, England.

Picture 2. A major valley in New Zealand, Eglinton Valley.

Picture 3. A rocky coast line along the ocean, Giant's Causeway, Northern Ireland.

Three groups of two teachers interviewed ten children each, i.e., thirty children in all, in a very friendly and informal way. One teacher acted as recorder and one as interviewer. Ten children from three different schools were interviewed. Each set of children was from the same class and of roughly equal ability. To secure the genuine and uninhibited opinion of all was the objective.

In a very friendly and informal way two or three children at a time were shown all three pictures at once and allowed to say what they liked about them. Some such introductory phrase as, "How do you like these?" or "What do you think of these photographs?" was adequate to start the children talking freely and happily. At first the interviewer answered such questions as cropped up, but did not try to direct the conversation along particular lines, except to keep to the idea of the experiment. All instruction was avoided. The recorder attempted to record everything that was said by the pupils and interviewer about the pictures and any conversation arising therefrom.

It was essential to keep the whole atmosphere free, easy, friendly and happy. In order to do this it was necessary to talk to the children about other pictures or things first and then lead them on to concentrate on the three pictures in question.

After the three children exhausted their own undirected comments and questions on the picture (say after ten or fifteen minutes), the interviewer asked specific questions which attempted to find out about each picture separately. The questions were as follows:

1. Which of the scenes interests you most?
2. Which of these three scenes is least interesting to you?
3. Why are you most interested in this one?
4. What are the specially interesting items in the picture?
5. Why are you least interested in that one?
6. From which picture have you learned most?
7. Which scene would you like to know more about?

The children were selected from three schools in Winnipeg, Manitoba.

General Comments

In picture one (Devonshire), twenty-four children recognized it as a farm scene. The remaining six spoke of it in the following

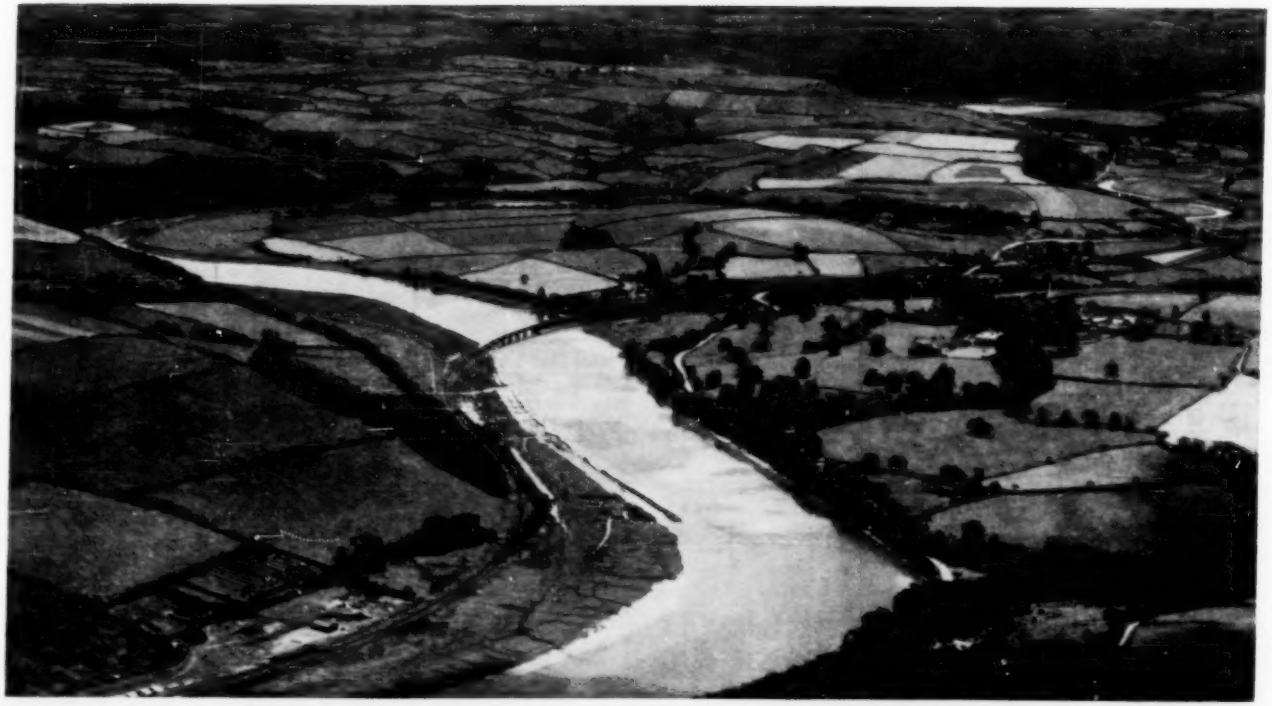

FIG. 1. Rural scenery in Devonshire, England. Courtesy, Aerofilms Limited.

way: (1) A summer resort. (2) Hills. (3) Land divided by hedges. (4) Bushes dividing off the land. (5) Lots of scenery. (6) A plateau.

The nature of the children's interest in this picture was the roads and the hills that would be good for biking. The river ap-

Fig. 2. Major valley in New Zealand, Eglinton Valley. Courtesy, Whites Aviation Limited.

pealed to them as a place for swimming. Someone thought that the land would produce a good crop and that there would be much to see at harvest time. Others remarked they would like to go there as the country appealed to them.

Many of the children wanted more factual information about this picture. Such questions asked in this regard were (1) "Is each square a different farm?" (2) "Is that a forest by the river?" (3) "Do you think there might be good fishing in the river?"

No comments were made on the effects of the things shown on: (1) other physical conditions or (2) human life.

In picture two (New Zealand), twenty-three children recognized it as a mountain scene. The seven children who did not recognize this type of scene, referred to it in the following way: (1) "It might be ploughed land." (2) "This looks like an inlet." (3) "What is this?" (4) "Is that gravel or trees?" (5) "Why is it so dark?"

The nature of the children's interest in this picture was the stream of water coming down the mountain, the trees on the mountain side and the snow on the top. One child remarked that it resembled a dried up river, another one referred to the glacier on the mountain. One child would have liked to investigate around the stream.

A number of the children wanted more information. Questions asked were: "Are those pine trees on the mountain?" "Do you think there might be houses over there?" "Is this an old river bed?" "Is that a river frozen over with a stream of water in the center?" "Is that gravel or trees?" "Is this a lake or snow?"

No comments were made about the effects of the things shown on: (1) other physical conditions or (2) human life.

In picture three (Ireland), twenty-six children recognized this as a picture of the sea and a rocky cliff. Four children seemed uncertain about the scene. Among the remarks they made were: "Is that an island in the distance?" "That looks like ploughed land." "I don't like this scene." "This is flat."

The nature of the children's interest in this picture was the large rock and the road, the island in the distance, the cliffs, the ocean, and the houses in the background. They were interested in this place because it would provide an excellent place for play. Someone suggested that there might be caves here to explore. One child thought there might be fossils of animals in the rocks. A number of children were interested in this place because it resembled places they had visited.

More factual knowledge was required about this picture. Questions asked were: "Is there sand at the bottom of the rock?" "Is that a highway along the edge of the rock?" "Where was the pic-

FIG. 3. Rocky coast line along the ocean, Giant's Causeway, Northern Ireland.
Courtesy, Aerofilms Limited.

ture taken?" "Is this the coast of Nova Scotia?" "Is this Newfoundland?" "Is this the shores of Lake Superior?"

No comments were made about the effects of the things shown on: (1) other physical conditions or (2) human life.

In this group of children 6.66 per cent were interested because the photo resembled some place they had seen. Such a remark as, "I was wondering if this picture was taken in Nova Scotia?", would indicate this. It was because of something they had read or studied that 2 per cent of the children showed interest. Proof of this was indicated by such a statement as, "I could look for strange rocks or fossils of animals." Because of the human aspects of the pictures 34.6 per cent of the children were interested. Remarks such as, "It looks like a summer resort," were made. The percentage of children who preferred unoccupied areas to occupied places was 66.3 per cent. Statements such as this one was made, "No one lives there so I could play on the rocks and go fishing."

The results of the experiment indicated that 60 per cent of the children learned most from picture *one*. From picture *two*, 23 per cent learned most, and from picture *three*, 16.6 per cent learned most.

The children who preferred picture *one* were those who have spent holidays on the farm. The ones who gave their preference for picture *two*, have done considerable travelling from the Rocky Mountains to Eastern Canada. The children who preferred picture *three*, have had the experience of spending holidays along the coast or on the shores of a lake.

In answer to the specific questions, it was found that picture *one*, was most interesting to the children. The ones who preferred this scene were those who had spent holidays on the farm. The specially interesting items mentioned were: (1) the river, (2) railroad, (3) farms, (4) trees, (5) buildings, (6) farm life, (7) pattern of the fields. From this picture they learned most.

Picture *three* was least interesting to the children. Some of the remarks they made about this picture were: "Nothing to look at." "It would be boring just to watch water dash up on the rocks for hours."

Picture *two* was the one, the children would like to know more about. Such questions as, "Is this an old riverbed?" "Is that a river frozen over with a stream of water in the center?" were asked.

It was the children who have had the experience of seeing

various types of scenery who preferred pictures *two* and *three*.

This type of experiment was entirely new to these children. They have not had experience of looking at pictures in geography. This probably accounts for the large percentage of comments and questions that could not be classified.

Question 6 in the specific questions was not clear to them. They seemed to think it was a repetition of question 1.

Question 6 was, "From which picture have you learned most?" Question 1 was, "Which scenes interest you most?" It was apparent that this group of children had no experience in discussing pictures of this nature. The interest was most evident when it resembled something that they had seen before. Such a statement as: "It reminds me of my trip to the Rockies, when I saw a valley and liked it very much," illustrates this point.

Such statements as, (1) "Is this the ocean?" (2) "I think the water is coming down in canal," show clearly that geography is not taught well in these schools. Other questions such as "I would like to know more about the formation and the snow capped mountains," indicate the need for geography for these children at this age level.

The photographs were probably not entirely clear and in that way were a little confusing. Questions that indicated this were: "Is that a house over there?" "Is that a highway along the edge of the rock?" "Are those islands in the distance?"

Some Conclusions

1. Photographs, to interest the child, must be bright and clear. Remarks such as, "Are those islands out in the ocean?" "There might be something over there," indicate the necessity of having clear pictures.

2. Photographs showing a variety of detail were preferred to the ones that had little contrast. The fact that the largest number of children liked the Devonshire scene, would prove this point.

3. More information about the photograph was desired. Questions asked by the children that indicated this were: "I would like to know where this picture was taken." "Is that a river frozen over with a stream of water in the center?"

4. The photographs were not seen as a whole picture. Many details such as these were mentioned: "It looks as if bushes divide the land." "I think that is a railroad track over the river."

5. Emotion played a considerable part in the interest of pictures by children. This fact was shown by the preference for the Devonshire scene. Reasons given were: "You could bicycle up and down hill." "You could swim in the river."

Among the thirty children the number of questions and comments due to inadequacy of the photographs was 6.97 per cent. The number of comments or questions due to children's ignorance of the things shown on the photographs was 7.83 per cent. The number of comments or questions requiring more exact factual knowledge about the things shown was 6.96 per cent. The number of questions or comments about how the things shown came to be as they were, was 2.61 per cent. The number of questions or comments about the effects of the things shown on other physical conditions and on human life was nil.

The number of children who saw picture *one* in its proper perspective was 80 per cent, and 20 per cent did not see it this way. Those who saw picture *two* in its proper perspective numbered 76.66 per cent and 23.34 per cent did not see it that way. There were 86.66 per cent of the children who saw picture *three* in its proper perspective and 13.34 per cent did not see it so.

The children seemed interested in looking at these pictures. Interest appeared to increase with the discussion of them.

It would seem that the children accept photographs of landscape, and are not concerned as to the causes of its formation.

It is apparent to the teacher that the children need guidance in the selection of photographic details for close study. They need careful training to appreciate size, as well as to look at pictures as a whole. Pictures, such as these present a valuable source of geography data. They were also interesting and enjoyable. To get the best results in studying physical geography for a grade five class, one should have large, clear pictures.

COMPARISON WITH ENGLAND

This small experiment has to be compared with a similar one conducted in primary schools all over England.

Interviews were held in 147 urban schools and 49 rural primary schools in England, whereas in Winnipeg, the interviews were held in three elementary schools.

In only three of the 196 schools in England, was geography not taught at all; in twelve it was only incidental as it arose in projects.

The remainder offered geography as a subject to ten year olds. Geography was not taught as a subject in the three schools in Winnipeg where the experiment was carried out.

The English and Canadian children both showed a preference for the Devonshire, rural scene. It was chosen by 82 per cent of the girls and 60 per cent of the boys in England. In Winnipeg 36.66 per cent of the children preferred this scene.

The picture of the Giant's Causeway was most liked by 10 per cent of the girls and 12 per cent of the boys in England. In Winnipeg 30 per cent of the children liked this picture best.

The New Zealand photograph was preferred by 8 per cent of the girls and 28 per cent of the boys in England. There were 33.33 per cent of the Winnipeg children who liked this picture best.

The least liked picture among the English children was New Zealand. It was selected thus by 72 per cent of the girls and 58 per cent of the boys. The least liked picture among the Winnipeg students was the Giant's Causeway. It was selected by 53.33 per cent of the children. In England, 23 per cent of the boys and 19 per cent of the girls selected the Giant's Causeway as least appealing. The New Zealand picture was liked least by 16.66 per cent of the Winnipeg children. Only 9 per cent of the girls and 19 per cent of the boys rated the Devonshire scene as least interesting in England. There were 30 per cent of the children in Winnipeg that liked this scene least.

The final conclusion from comparing the two experiments can be summarized as follows:

1. It would seem that the English children were more familiar with physical geography than the Canadian children. This was indicated when they mentioned certain features of landscape including headland, horizon, bay, estuary, slope and so forth.
2. The English children were able to make some deductions. They were aware of some connection between physical and human life. The Canadian children made fewer deductions along this line.
3. In both the English and Canadian groups, the photographs did not appear entirely clear, judging from comments made.
4. Both groups indicated a desire for more knowledge.
5. The children in England and Canada viewed the photographs in parts, not wholes.

6. Emotion played a large part in the interest of pictures by the English and Canadian child.
7. Little natural interest was shown by the children in the causes of physical phenomena for this particular pictorial representation in both England and Canada.

The results indicate differences in knowledge that the English children have acquired by including geography in the curriculum. The English children would also be more familiar with various types of physical geography scenery, such as the sea, valleys and mountains. The Winnipeg children are quite removed from the type of scenery mentioned above.

SETTLEMENT OF THE MIDDLE RIO GRANDE VALLEY*

WILFRID D. KELLEY
City Planning Commission, Albuquerque, New Mexico

The Rio Grande depression of central and northern New Mexico has been inhabited by sedentary peoples for many centuries. Pueblo Indians have been there for perhaps a thousand years. Spanish-Americans, whose ancestors came north from Mexico, have lived in the area for three and a half centuries. The latest to arrive were the English-speaking Americans—called "Anglos" in New Mexico—who began moving in from the east a century ago. Within this long-inhabited area, there are two principal settlement regions. The Spanish called the region from Santa Fe northward the Rio Arriba or Up-River Country, and the settled area south of the Santa Fe Plateau the Rio Abajo or Down-River Country, the middle Rio Grande of today. At each stage in its long history of human occupance the extent and type of settlement of the Middle Rio Grande have reflected in different degree such interrelated factors as natural habitat, culture of the occupants, the effects of previous patterns, and external conditions. The settlements and associated land-use of each period have in turn left a strong impress on the present scene.

* A paper read before the National Council of Geography Teachers, August 19, 1954, in San Francisco.

The Land

The Middle Rio Grande Valley occupies most of the Basin and Range Province between the Colorado Plateaus and the Great Plains in Central New Mexico. On the south it is separated from the next settled region downstream—the El Paso District—by the Jornada del Muerto bolson and the Rio Grande canyons now filled

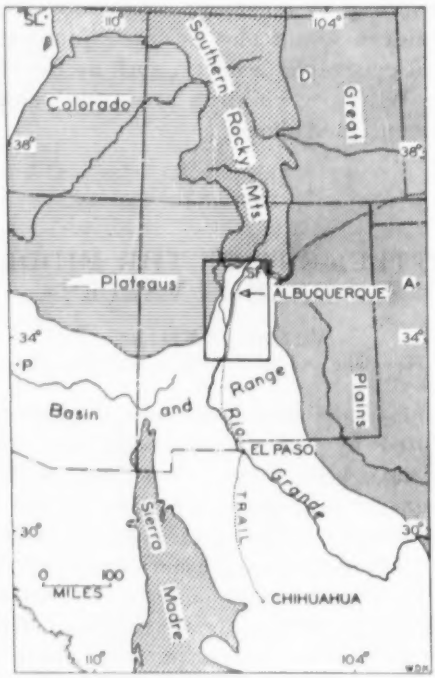

Fig. 1. General location map. The rectangle indicates the area of the Middle Rio Grande Valley and bordering territory. Santa Fe is located on a plateau which borders the Middle Valley on the north.

by Elephant Butte Reservoir (Fig. 1). The heart of the Middle Rio Grande is the 140-mile stretch of floodplain built by the river in its inner valley. The floodplain, hemmed in by a broad zone of gravelly valley bluffs measures about four miles wide at its widest points. Narrows divide it into four separate valleys—named from north to south—after their principal settlements—Santo Domingo Valley, Albuquerque Valley, Belen Valley, and Socorro Valley

(Fig. 2). Here in the inner valleys the exotic waters of the river provide moisture for cultivated fields and remnants of the original cottonwood groves (*bosque*). And here the population has always been concentrated.

The broad basins thru which the river has cut its inner valley

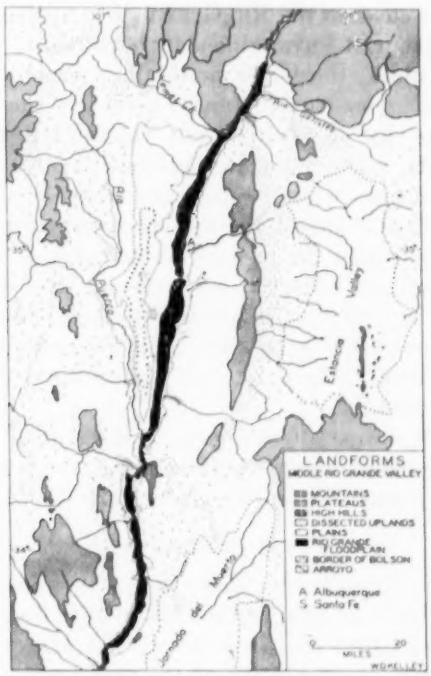

FIG. 2. Landforms of the Middle Rio Grande are varied and complex. Local relief varies from a few feet on the plains to several thousand feet in the mountains, but the entire region is above 4600 feet altitude.

extend east and west from the valley bluff in the form of plains— in some places sloping smoothly upward a thousand feet to the base of mountains or plateaus; in other places these plains are dissected by many arroyos. On the plains an average— but far from typical —annual precipitation of 8 to 15 inches supports only a thin cover of bunch grass or xerophytic shrubs and herbs. These arid plains have been used for grazing for some three centuries, but only in the last 75 years have facilities for pumping ground water from

depths of a hundred feet or more made possible the establishment of permanent habitations. Many water courses cross the plains from highlands to the floodplain. Altho some of the largest are called rivers, they are all really arroyos since none carry perennial surface water to the Rio Grande. Settlements have existed along the Puerco, the Jemez, and the Galisteo, generally not on the drier lower portions close to the Rio Grande, but upstream where water is—or was in the past—available most of the year.

Above the plains tower the mountains: volcanic masses like the Socorro or limestone-capped fault blocks like the narrow Sandia-Manzano range east of Albuquerque. The foothills and lower slopes are dotted with piñon pine and juniper shrub. Upper mountain slopes, where heavy winter snows and summer showers bring as much as 30 inches of annual precipitation, support vigorous stands of conifers, especially the commercially valuable ponderosa pine. In the piñon-juniper zone, at spots where a little water was available from springs or tiny mountain streams Indian pueblos once existed. A number of these sites have been reoccupied by small Spanish-American villages, but the higher slopes have never been occupied permanently.

The general course of settlement in the Middle Rio Grande has been one of repeated expansion and contraction, with the chief concentrations of population scattered along the Rio Grande floodplain.

Pueblo Settlement

The first historically-recorded stage of settlement was that of the Pueblo Indians as seen in the middle 16th century by Spanish explorers who visited the area before the arrival of permanent Spanish settlers. The majority of the ancestors of these Indians had migrated to the Rio Grande country from the Colorado Plateaus beginning about the 12th century. Studies of the several hundred archaeological sites of the Middle Rio Grande Valley show an initial widespread dispersion of many small communities, followed by concentration into fewer and larger villages, probably under pressure of attack from nomadic Indians combined with drought or disease or inter-pueblo warfare. By the middle of the 16th century the number of pueblos in the Middle Rio Grande had been reduced to approximately sixty-five. The general distribution was similar to that which existed a century later in 1666 (Fig. 3). The 16th century pueblos, however, extended farther south in

Socorro Valley, were far more numerous in Albuquerque Valley, and extended northward along the Jemez Plateau.

The pueblo was a compact village composed of multi-storied terraced buildings closely built around a central court. The ground floor rooms provided storage for one or two years' supply of food

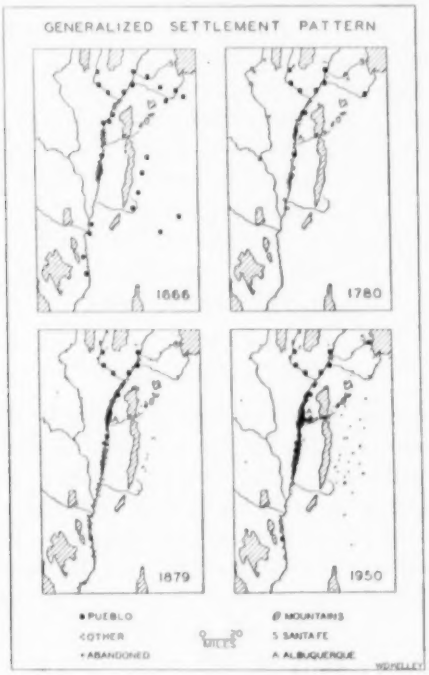

FIG. 3. The generalized maps of the Middle Rio Grande Valley for the Mission, Colonial, Pre-railroad Territorial, and Recent period indicate major changes in the settlement pattern. The dots do not indicate actual population.

—insurance against drought. The outer walls of the buildings were a defensive barricade, and the roof tops provided a look-out post against sudden attack from the nomadic Indians who were constant enemies of the Pueblos and all settled people until late in the 19th century. Along the Rio Grande many pueblos were built on the valley bluff, a location which not only conserved bottomland for crops, but gave a greater view of approaches to the pueblo.

Others, however, especially where the floodplain was wider, were located on the bottomland. Away from the Rio Grande floodplain were three groups of pueblos: one group occupying the Upper Jemez and the plateau above; another on the banks of minor arroyos of Galisteo Basin; and a third group along the eastern foothills of the Manzano Mountains. To those who assume that an agricultural people could live in the Middle Rio Grande only by ditch irrigation, many of these sites seem puzzling, for many of them did not have a reliable source of water. But Pueblo agriculture did not depend on ditch irrigation. Even in the Rio Grande floodplain, altho a few pueblos had shallow irrigation ditches, the general practice seems to have been floodwater farming—the planting of tracts of land naturally moistened by flood waters or slope runoff. Since the Indians had no domestic livestock except turkeys, the unplanted portions of the valley bottom and all the plains and mountains were used only for sporadic hunting and gathering which provided food to supplement cultivated crops of maize, beans, and cucurbits.

Spanish Missions

The establishment of Franciscan missions in the 17th century brought significant changes but not a radical alteration of the pattern of pueblo settlement. The missions of New Mexico were not large compounds like those in California, but, like those in central Mexico, were primarily religious establishments built at existing pueblos. Two important changes were the introduction of sheep and of iron hoes and spades which facilitated general adoption of ditch irrigation. There was also a considerable reduction in the number of Indian pueblos—so that there were only 25 pueblos at the height of the mission period in 1666 (Fig. 3). The consolidation was due in part to encouragement by the friars who were few in number and found it difficult to visit many distant scattered settlements. But in greater measure it was due to raids by the nomadic Indians, which increased as they were attracted by Spanish sheep and horses in addition to the food supplies of the pueblos.

An even sharper reduction in the number of pueblos came at the end of the 17th century as the result of drought, raids, and the Pueblo revolt. Today there are only eight pueblos in the Middle Rio Grande country. They have changed surprisingly little since the mission period. The height of the pueblo has been reduced to

one story; a few detached houses have been built on the outskirts; the area under irrigation and the grazing lands have increased in extent. But the compact village and the adjacent fields remain the center of pueblo life.

SPANISH SETTLEMENTS

The Spanish colonists who came to New Mexico with the Franciscan missionaries had great hopes that the country would prove a second or *New* Mexico as profitable to them as old Mexico had been to its conquerors. But matters proved otherwise and New Mexico remained for two and a half centuries an isolated, frontier outpost of the Spanish New World, thinly populated by farmers and shepherds.

During the 17th century mission period a few Spanish families received grants of land in the Middle Rio Grande floodplain. On them they established *estancias*—combination farms and ranches devoted to wheat production and stock raising. These *estancias* were concentrated in Albuquerque and Belen Valleys as close as possible to the Indian pueblos from which they obtained their laborers. These *estancias* might possibly have developed in colonial New Mexico a settlement pattern like that of the neighboring province of Chihuahua with widely scattered large properties using labor of dependent Indians. But the Pueblo Revolt of 1680 drove all the Spaniards from New Mexico and sharply reduced the Indian population. When Spanish colonization of New Mexico was resumed twelve years later, entirely new patterns began to take shape. The Indians who returned to resettle the nine Middle Rio Grande pueblos were few. The province was not prosperous enough to justify large-scale import of labor from Mexico. The work of settling and cultivating the land had therefore to be done by settlers who voluntarily migrated to the area. There developed during the 18th century the pattern of small owner-operated farms which characterizes much of the Middle Rio Grande even today.

After the Pueblo Revolt, resettlement proceeded very slowly from Santa Fe which was the primary settlement center for both the Up-River Country and for the Middle Rio Grande. By the middle of the 18th century settlement had advanced southward into Belen Valley. There the frontier of settlement remained for the rest of the century. Altho settlements further downstream would have been useful in protecting the Chihuahua Trail (Fig. 1), there

were too few people to attempt to defend a greater territory against attacks from the Apache, Comanche, and Navajo.

The advance of settlement was renewed at the beginning of the 19th century. Increased population made new settlement both necessary and possible, and after more than a century of abandonment Socorro Valley and the eastern foothills of the Sandia and Manzano Mountains were again reoccupied. (Fig. 3). After United States conquest of New Mexico in 1846, the spread of Spanish-speaking villages continued as Federal troops gradually brought the Navajo and Apache under control. Thus in 1879, just before the arrival of the first railroad, the settled area was approximately as it had been three centuries earlier before the beginning of Spanish settlement.

In form, the Spanish settlements of the 18th century were not compact villages—as one might expect in view of the continued danger of Indian attack—but simply groups of farms bound together by dependence on a community irrigation canal and by common use of the grazing lands of the community land grant. Eighteenth century governors of New Mexico issued orders requiring the people to organize themselves into compact fortified villages designed after the Indian pueblos or the Spanish grid-pattern town. However, with the exception of Albuquerque, the existing communities seem not to have observed the order. Settlements founded after this time in Socorro Valley and east of the mountains generally did take the form of a compact village with the inhabitants building their houses around a central plaza apart from their fields. The individual farms each fronted on the irrigation ditch and therefore were laid out at right angle to the river (Fig. 4). The original farms, designed to be worked by a single family, were not large, but in the course of time became even smaller as they were subdivided among heirs. Commonly the subdivided tracts came to form long narrow strips, extending from the ditch to the river. In some areas, however, an amorphous patch work was created probably as a result of realignments and irregular additions to the irrigation ditch system. Even in places where large land grants were originally given to private individuals rather than to communities, subdivision thru inheritance produced similar patterns.

The map of Spanish and Mexican land grants—including only those confirmed by the United States courts—serves as a crude index of the maximum extent of Spanish settlement (Fig. 5). Land

away from the irrigable valley bottoms was neither settled nor subdivided into individual holdings. Raids of the nomads kept grazing of the upland plains to a minimum and forced a concentration of livestock in the immediate vicinity of the settlements.

Many of the old Spanish-American settlements remain farming communities. But loss of community grazing lands thru tax sales,

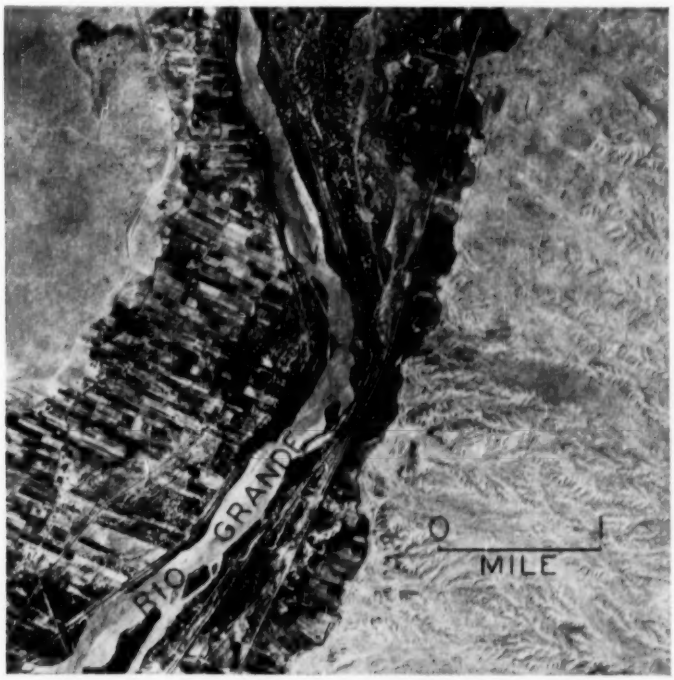

FIG. 4. An air view of a portion of the Middle Rio Grande floodplain showing cultivated strips bordering the gravity-fed canals. The large amorphous gray patches are "bosque" or groves of cottonwood. (SCS, 1936)

deterioration of the remaining land thru over-grazing and the small size of irrigated farms (often under twelve acres) have made it impossible for many Spanish-Americans to maintain even a subsistence standard of living from the land. In order to hold on to their homes and land, they commonly seek employment outside the village.

Anglo-American Settlement

Altho New Mexico was conquered by the United States in 1846, little change occurred as the result of American control until the arrival of the Santa Fe Railroad in 1880. The railroad brought Anglo-American settlers and made possible commercial exploita-

Fig. 5. Spanish and Mexican land grants confirmed by United States courts as private property of individuals, families, communities, or Indian pueblos. Many grants are not shown since the title was lost under the Spanish regime or could not be proven to the satisfaction of our Federal courts.

tion of new resources. The principal changes in the settlement pattern have been the filling in of empty spaces and the development of urban centers. In the mountains mine towns and lumber camps were established. On the plains ranch headquarters, stock water tanks, and fences appeared as large herds of cattle were moved in. Much of this settlement proved impermanent. Most of the mines had closed by World War I; most of the mountain areas have been

incorporated in the national forest system; many ranches are without permanent residents as small operators have sold out to large operators and as ranchers in general have moved their headquarters to town. Yet a residue of settlement and a thin population still remain in these formerly empty spaces.

In the Rio Grande floodplain the most notable feature of Anglo

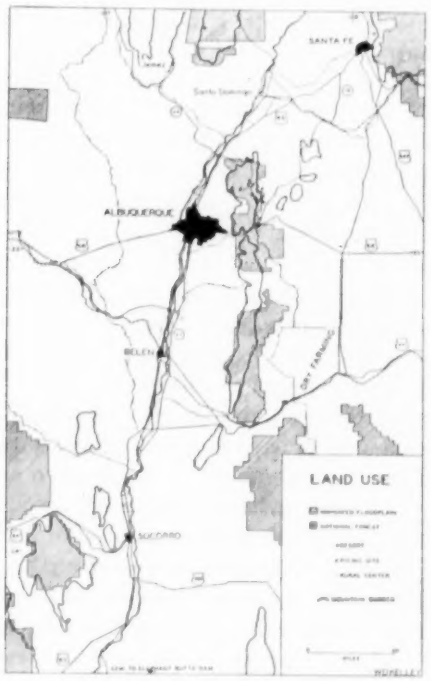

FIG. 6. The simple land use map of the Middle Rio Grande Valley and adjacent territory emphasizes the large area and east-west expansion of Albuquerque and the predominance of grazing land (blank areas) within the city's primary trading area.

settlement has been the growth of former rural villages along the railroad into urban centers. Their normal size as trade centers is small: Belen and Socorro each have a population of about 5000. Even Albuquerque, which with the coming of the railroad soon succeeded Santa Fe as the chief commercial town of the state, had a population of only about 45,000 a decade ago. At Albuquerque, however, there has taken place, within the last decade, a seemingly

phenomenal increase to a population of 150,000, accompanied by the expansion of the urban area into the farm land of the floodplain and eastward to the base of the Sandia Mountains (Fig. 6). This new population depends little on the resources or trade of the Middle Rio Grande or even of New Mexico, but is largely accounted for by the establishment of large federal military and atomic energy bases close to the city.

Urbanization has, as in other areas, affected the countryside. Ribbons of suburban homes, filling stations, and motor courts, have spread out along the highways. Near the city specialized farms have replaced the hay and livestock farms in response to the urban market for milk, poultry, fruit, and vegetables. Real estate speculators have marked many sections of land northeast of Albuquerque with street signs and hastily graded roadways that may set the design of future surburban areas.

In this latest stage of settlement the impact of man on the land has been more severe than in any past period; even slight deterioration of the land due to flooding, alkalinity, erosion, and related changes has led to decrease of rural population in many areas and complete abandonment of some settlements. The cattle boom of the 19th century set in motion a process of over-grazing that has decreased the carrying capacity of the range lands by 50 to 75 percent. Consequent entrenchment of the Puerco and Galisteo has forced the people of those areas to give up farming and usually to abandon their villages. The increased volume of silt carried by the arroyos in flood to the Rio Grande—together with a decrease in the volume of the river due to up-stream demands—has resulted in rapid aggradation of the river bed. In the San Marcial area at the southern end of the Socorro Valley the Rio Grande has spread out to form a swamp covering the fields of former agricultural communities. In the rest of the floodplain it has been necessary to construct costly flood control works and the accumulations of sediment reduce the effective life of the irrigation system. Recommended programs for its rehabilitation far exceed the financial capacity of the Middle Rio Grande Conservancy District.

Periodic changes in the nature and distribution of sedentary settlement during the last several centuries in the Middle Rio Grande reflect changes in the way of life and to a lesser degree conditions of the land. Altho sites with surface water have been the centers of human activity, considerations of defense played a

major role in setting the frontiers of settlement until the suppression of the nomads in the late 19th century. Application of the new technology of the machine era made possible effective occupation of the entire region, but at the same time rapid commercial exploitation has significantly damaged the land base upon which all settlement ultimately rests. An ecological balance to sustain a long-lasting pattern of settlement has yet to be worked out in the Middle Rio Grande Valley of New Mexico.

THE FACTOR OF PLACE IN LITERATURE

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At Technical High School in Springfield a number of the required and recommended readings demand particular and somewhat extensive knowledge of geography for proper interpretation. After teaching older and more traveled students who have broken thru provincial barriers, I have felt the younger students' lack of geographical knowledge and my own need of a systematic approach to the problem.

I am able on occasion to offer comments from direct acquaintance with places I have happened to visit, the locale of Steinbeck's *The Pearl*, of Cather's *O Pioneers!*, of Rawlings' *The Yearling*, and others. These comments, however, are haphazard and unsystematic in that they do not come from an established position that embraces all possible places.

Let me itemize among the books on the reading list at Tech the problems associated with place.

THE HISTORICAL AND NATURALISTIC NOVEL

If it be recognized that in the study of literature character, plot, and setting are considered the three major divisions of a story, noted from greatest to least in importance, then a beginning has been made in setting up standards. If it be recognized that literature in its best sense is concerned primarily with human nature, then much writing must be automatically eliminated: that which gives first place to either plot or setting.

There is a further consideration that complicates the approach to high school readings and makes consideration of place increasingly vital. Much of the reading that students are likely to do on their own out of school, if best-seller lists prove anything, make much of place, both in the historical novel and the so-called naturalistic novel, which together dominate contemporary fiction. Place is a vital part, even an overwhelming force, in many books of today. Thomas Hardy writes in *The Return of the Native* of a place which becomes, for all practical purposes, a character in the plot. Its moods affect the people of the place. It is even credited with acting against humans which anger or oppose it, and thus symbolizes Hardy's philosophical belief in the domination of nature over man.

By this time the "local color" story was flourishing too. In the typical local color story place, as in Hardy, was given first consideration over all other factors but merely at the expense of character. Customs, language, dress, the physical surroundings were given greater attention than matters of characterization. So much time was spent on surfaces that the characters inclined to broadly outlined types.

In the novel usually called naturalistic, man is studied in relation to his environment from a heavily pessimistic point of view. Man is pictured at the mercy of his environment, without free choice, more animal than man. Most of these, of course, would be censored out of high school courses since they show man at his worst.

How are we to establish in the student's mind sensible standards by which he can evaluate his own reading experience? How can we implicitly encourage the reading of the best (or at least the recognition of the best when it is read) and put him on guard against inferiority?

Human Nature Writings

In Shakespeare (*Romeo and Juliet*, Grade 11; *Hamlet, Macbeth*, Grade 12) it can be shown that setting is relatively unimportant compared to the large and general ideas about human nature. Even tho he did write plays set in Italy, Denmark, and many other countries, the places were unknown to him except at second hand. Setting is merely the backdrop against which generic humans act out their natures.

BLENDS OF PLACE, TIME AND ATMOSPHERE

Silas Marner (Grade 10) may be used to show blending of local color items with the specific elements of place, time, and atmosphere in what is essentially a long character sketch of Silas. George Eliot gives considerable space to showing customs, dress, etc., of the period of which she writes in *Silas Marner*, even lengthy chapters. But these chapters simply postpone the development of plot and characters without distortion of either. In addition, the description of physical settings is economical and is related to man's use of the land about him.

Huckleberry Finn (Grade 11) happily blends elements of local color and the physical factors of environment. It is possible to analyze *Huckleberry Finn* as a local color story in detail, to know thereby the customs, dress, manners, and speech of the place and the time pictured. It is also possible to analyze the effect of the region's climate, weather, land forms, and the like on man's life. At the same time Huckleberry is a boy for all times and places. He is both a type and an individual.

In Willa Cather's *O Pioneers!* (Grade 12) there is also a realistic blending of the factors of a story to give a wholesome, healthy, but certainly not prettified picture of a region. The book is illuminating both of life in Nebraska and life in general. The principal character's faith in the soil and her close relation to nature's wonderful power of germination is inspirational and real. The man-land concept could be studied here, the dynamic, shaping power of the human will brought to bear on an environment that is neither good nor bad in itself but is turned to good by the human agency of intelligent hard work.

SHORT STORIES—COMPREHENSIVE REVIEWS

Short stories are available for study in all three grades. In Grade 10 one of the collections includes a Bret Harte local color story, *The Outcasts of Poker Flats*, a Jack London story of a tenderfoot in a losing battle with the snow, ice, and freezing temperatures of the Yukon in *To Build a Fire*, a John Steinbeck story of the struggle of a fugitive boy against terrain, vegetation, animals, heat of day and cold of night in *Flight*, a Richard Connell story of the hunted human trying to escape capture and death through jungle, swamp, and sea in *The Most Dangerous Game*. Illustrations of tendencies in longer works may be shown in stories of these

types, and a comprehensive review of the study of man in relation to his environment may be managed.

In each of the three years then there is an opportunity to teach an ascending order of readings illustrating the several stages of reading in the direction of the best. All types could be briefly surveyed cumulatively thru the short story. It could be shown that some writers casually emphasize place at the expense of character, that some use place in great detail but in an attempt to show the possibilities of its real influence on the lives of men, that some emphasize place to establish over-pessimistic or over-optimistic beliefs about man. It could be shown, in other words that some writers treat place romantically, some naturalistically, some realistically.

Geographic Aids Enrich Readings

An insistence on showing the realistic treatment of man in relation to his environment (as best done in *Silas Marner*, *Huckleberry Finn*, and *O Pioneers!*) should allow the student opportunity to see both extremes away from realism in both readings in the courses and in his private experience. But thoro exploitation of the contrasting uses of place by a writer might best be managed by the use of maps showing land forms, agricultural regions, climate, rainfall; also by pictures illustrating the look of the land and man's work on the land. Such information might help the student to see the story as related to the place and to put it in context. Further information on the relation of the geographical place to the reader's environment by comparison, or contrast, or both might assist the student in seeing the story as part of a larger unit than his own immediate surroundings. Collectively, the stories of various places might assist him in gaining the world view necessary to today's citizen.

AN EXPERIMENT IN HOME COMMUNITY GEOGRAPHY

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The home community is the base of operations in geographic learning. It permits direct observation of natural and cultural phenomena, an important ingredient of the techniques and processes utilized in geographic learning. The interpretation of relationships of observed phenomena is possible in the home community. Study of the home community is a primary learning experience and as such is closely associated with life situations. The home community provides a basis for the comparative evaluation of communities. It is in the home community where the fundamental steps in citizenship training are taken.

The recognition of the importance of home community study has moved forward faster than the development of techniques facilitating such study. To help reduce the discrepancy, an experiment was conducted in grades 4 to 8 of the elementary schools in River Forest, Illinois, which primarily involved the identification of selected cultural elements and the recording of them on a community map. Other features were—showing directions, computing scale, making an analysis of the total land use of one "square block," and trying to identify some relationships between elements of the local landscape.

The materials given to each child are here presented, except that the instruction sheet for things to be recorded on the community map had the symbols at the end of each line and not coded in as shown.

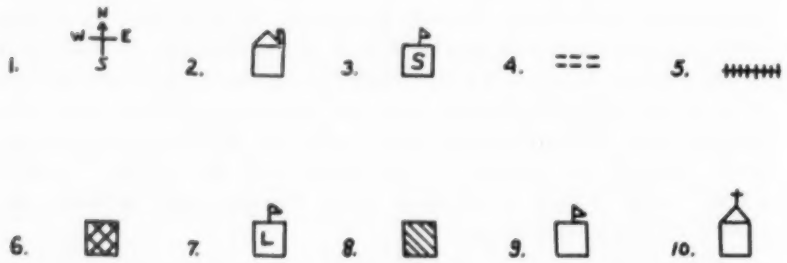
OUR COMMUNITY

River Forest, Illinois

1. Hold your map so that the top of it is to the North. Draw this in a corner of your paper to show directions .....(1)
2. Find a river on your map. Write in the name of the river. Color the river blue.
3. Find the block in which you live. Draw in your house like this .....(2)
4. Find the block in which your school is located. Draw in your school like this ..(3)
5. You have found your home and your school. Draw a line showing where you would walk or ride when going from your home to your school.
6. Here is a list of streets. Write them in the right places on your map.

Washington	Chicago	Madison
Division	Thatcher	Lathrop
Lake	Harlem	North

7. Draw in as many bus lines as you know or can find like this .....(4)
8. There are two railroads running through River Forest. Draw them on your map like this .....(5)
9. Using green, color in as many forest preserves, parks, and playgrounds as you know or can find.
10. Find the store where your mother buys her groceries. Color the place where the store is located brown.
11. Find a large department store. Draw it on your map like this .....(6)
12. Find the library. Draw it on your map like this .....(7)
13. Color in red the place where the fire station, police station, and City Hall are found.
14. Can you find a factory (a place where people make suits, bottle milk, bake cakes, assemble automobiles, etc.)? Draw it like this .....(8)
15. Draw as many schools as you can find like this .....(9)
16. Draw as many churches as you can find like this .....(10)
17. The distance from Madison Street to Chicago Avenue is one mile. Draw a line on your map which represents a distance of one mile. How many inches long is the line which represents one mile? ..... How long is River Forest from north to south? ..... How wide is it from east to west at its widest place? .....



Land Use in One Block

Let us suppose that the drawing shows the block in which you live.

Put the names of the streets around the block in their proper places.

Color all of the space used by the houses and yards brown.

If there are stores in your block, color the space they use yellow.

Color schools and schoolyards red.

Color parks and playgrounds green.

If some of the land is vacant, leave it white.

If something is done with the land in your block other than those things mentioned, make up your own color scheme for that

land use. (If the block in which you live does not have the shape of the ones shown on the map, it is a good idea to draw it correctly on the back side of this page. Use the new one for coloring.)

SEEING THINGS THAT BELONG TOGETHER

Let us suppose that you have a bicycle. After school you decide to go for a long ride in River Forest. Of course, you want to see things in the village as you ride. (You will be careful to avoid a traffic accident.) If you look carefully, you will find things that belong together. For example, you may see a playground next to a school, or a candy store next to a theatre, or a park next to a river,

or a golf course on rolling land. List as many things as you can find in River Forest which seem to belong together.

.....
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Can you think of things that you have seen in communities other than River Forest that seem to belong together? If you can, name some.

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Conclusions

1. As expected, there was a wide variation of responses at each grade level. However, the quality and quantity of materials produced seemed to reflect the quality of a teacher more than it did the maturity of a pupil.

2. Within a range of wide variation, the quantity of map recording increased slightly with each grade level.

3. Directional orientation was readily achieved. The presence of the river as a boundary on the west apparently contributed to the success of this venture.

4. Of the items listed for recording, the bus routes caused the most difficulty. This seems reasonable, since there is little in the fixed landscape which indicates the streets being used by buses.

5. With few exceptions, the pupils in grade four demonstrated that they cannot work with scale. From grade five up it was possible, in general.

6. The recording of land use in one "square block" presented no difficulties.

7. The pupils gave little evidence of being able to identify relationships of observed phenomena. Perhaps adjustments will have to be made in teacher training before children can be sensitized to this type of geographic thinking.

8. Teacher approval, pupil response, and parental interest seem to be ample justification for projects of this nature.

LIBERIA

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University of Bridgeport, Bridgeport, Connecticut

On the equatorial side of the "bulge" of West Africa is a small country whose origin, location and economic potentialities are fraught with considerable interest for Americans. This small country is the Republic of Liberia and it owes its origin, as an independent African Republic, to American idealism.

ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT

More than 100 years ago, a group of men met in Washington, D.C. in the gloomy, now-unused Supreme Court Chambers in the Capitol Building. Out of that meeting a new nation—Liberia—originated. The men in question, members of the American Colonization Society, had striven since 1817 to settle freed North American Negroes in West Africa.

In July, 1947, Liberia began its second century of independence. To help celebrate the centennial the United States on July 26 sent three warships and an official delegation headed by General Benjamin O. Davis, the only general officer of African descent in the United States Army.

Since 1822, when the first settlers founded Monrovia, the capital of Liberia, the little state has encountered many obstacles. Not much bigger than the state of Ohio and sandwiched between French and British possessions, Liberia has been a "pariah" in a continent of colonial holdings, plagued by sleeping sickness and parched by the breath of the dry "Harmattan" wind from the Sahara Desert. Only American interest has saved Liberia from absorption by England and France, neither country being enthusiastic over the idea of a viable Negro Republic supplying an example for their nearby colonial subjects.

Some 15,000 freed American slaves were resettled in Liberia and their descendants have today come to constitute a ruling class in that little republic. The government is patterned after that of the United States with a Senate, a House of Representatives, and a President who lives in a "White House." English is the official language, and the coinage is denominated in dollars and cents. The Liberian flag contains the same elements as does that of the United States.

The similarity, however, stops at that point. Liberia is very poor, its fairly large resources are undeveloped and its schools are few. Graduates of even the College of Liberia can scarcely be regarded as having reached the college graduate level. The 10,000 inhabitants of Monrovia for the most part lack the convenience of paved streets, and they have no water or sewage systems. Inland, the rugged hill and low mountain country is seldom traveled but within it live some 1,500,000 of Liberia's estimated 1,515,000 population. These native tribesmen have never been accepted as equals by the "Americo-Liberians"—descendants of the 15,000 American emigrants.[1]

"In its relationship with Liberia, the American Government is confronted with a so far unsolved dilemma. Liberia is independent yet it is in a drastic need of outside aid. . . ."[2] The picture of corruption, inefficiency and tryanny presented by a decadent Liberian oligarchy, modelling iself upon the pattern of the old gentry of the American "South" and having dwindled in numbers from a one-time maximum of 20,000 to 12,000, is depressing to say the least. And yet, one cannot withold a certain admiration for the political astuteness of the little clique at Monrovia who have played off first Britain and the United States, then Britain, France, and Germany, then the United States, and finally the League of Nations and the Firestone Rubber Company in an atmosphere of continuing political sordidness.

Recent Changes

The Second World War wrought startling changes. The United States established an airport at Roberts Field and a seaplane base at Fisherman's Lake; indeed, Liberia became a vital link in the

[1] For more details see: R. Earl Anderson, *Liberia, America's African Friend*. University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, 1952, stresses that the country fulfills the missions of a colony but does so through its own political independence; Don Looper, "Liberian Agricultural Progress." *Foreign Agriculture*, Vol. XIV (May 5, 1950) p. 110; Dihwo Twe, "Liberia: An American Responsibility." *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Vol. 282 (July, 1952) p. 104; Charles Morrow Wilson, *Liberia*. Sloane, New York, 1947, informative on international affairs and on America's industrial position in Liberia; Raymond Leslie Buell *Liberia, A Century of Survival, 1847—1947*. University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1947, good on political history; Charles H. Huberich, *The Political and Legal History of Liberia*. Central Book Co., New York, 1947; George T. Renner, "Economic Adjustments in Liberia." *Economic Geography*, Vol. 7, No. 2 (April, 1931) p. 289.

[2] R. L. Buell, *op. cit.*, 61.

chain of allied air bases between America and the Middle East. American policy resulted in the creation of the Stettinius Corporation whose $100 million, and the projected railway from the new American port ($19 million in Lend-Lease) across Liberia and into French Guinea, complement an iron ore concession in the Bomi Hills, an aid for public health mission ($1 million), and an air base at Monrovia ($5 million). Meanwhile, Raphael O'Hara Lanier was named American Minister to Liberia (instead of Consul as were his predecessors). Moreover, a mission from the United States Department of State began to survey the country's commercial possibilities. Liberian President Tubman, an energetic, intelligent lawyer, worked tirelessly to carry out social and technological reforms, championing the native tribesmen against the frock-coated, white-helmeted elite of the America-Liberians. The latter are wont to refer to him resentfully as "That Man in the Executive Mansion." In 1947, the era of decadent somnolence finally drew to a close, when the United States made Liberia a birthday gift of a brand-new $18 million port, financed thru Lend-Lease funds.

Few things have happened to Liberia to bring the little country greater benefits than the new roads, airport, and port facilities. One that ranks along side these, however, has been the Firestone endeavor.[3] After operating there for more than a decade, shipments of rubber by the Firestone Company account for 90 per cent of the nation's exports.

Location and Surface Character

Across the narrowest part of the Atlantic Ocean facing the Brazilian apex of South America, Liberia's 350-mile coastline lies on the southwestern corner of the great western protuberance of Africa. The British colony of Sierra Leone borders Liberia on the northwest, and the French colony of the Ivory Coast lies along the eastern side. Liberia's coastline is low and sandy with occasional promontories. The interior is a rolling plateau capped by low mountains. A dense tropical forest covers more than five-sixths of the country, and constitutes one of the best remaining timber stands in West Africa and rich mineral resources are largely untouched.

[3] Alfred Lief, *The Firestone Story*. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1952 and George T. Renner, "The Drama of Rubber," *Current History*, Vol. XXXIII, No. 3 (December, 1930) p. 405.

More than 30 of Liberia's rivers are unnavigable, but the Cavally and the St. Paul rivers are partially navigable.

Resources and Products

Central Liberia is known for its magnificent growth of rubber trees. There the climate and rainfall are similar to the Brazilian district of Acre, the original home of the Hevea rubber tree. Between 15,000 and 30,000 Liberians work on the rubber plantations; the rubber being shipped thru the port of Marshall (about 40 miles south of Monrovia).

Other products such as figs, oil palms, cotton, coconuts, limes, pineapples and avocados are raised for local subsistence, and they help to keep the cost of living low. In 1947, the Liberia Mining Company began construction of roads which would give access to the ore deposits in the Bomi Hills, 41 miles northwest of Monrovia. Thru swampy territory previously crossed only by narrow trails, engineers built a narrow-gauge railway and parallel motor road. American geologists appraised the ore, both hematite and magnetite, as having an average iron content of 68.9 per cent. This percentage, according to a recent United Nations survey of world iron-ore resources, ranked Liberia's ore as the richest mined in the world today.[4]

Financing of the Liberia Mining Company was accomplished largely thru loans from the Export-Import Bank and the Republic Steel Corporation. It is planned that mining in the Bomi Hills will be surface mining for at least the first 15 years. The Liberation Navigation Company in 1951 bought four ships with which to carry ore from Monrovia to Baltimore for the Republic Steel Corporation.

The opening of the Bomi Hills iron ore deposit represents one of the steps in the rapid development of new ore resources both in the United States and abroad. The availability of Bomi ore, coupled with the recent development of methods of extracting profitably the iron from the immense beds of low grade ore known as taconite lying near the surface of the Mesabi range in the United States—and the development of access to foreign areas of rich iron deposits—should contribute materially to relieving the pressure on America's dwindling Lake Superior reserves. At full operation, the

[4] Griffith J. Davis, "Iron Boom in Liberia." *Steelway*, Vol. VII, No. 5 (September, 1951) p. 21.

Bomi range will export a million tons per year. During the next ten years, therefore, Liberia's rich ore should help maintain the balance of steel production in favor of the United States in its power race with the U.S.S.R.

AGRICULTURAL PROGRESS

A half decade of rapid agricultural advancement has since 1948 made Liberia self-sufficient in production of its two principal food crops, rice and cassava, for the first time since the Republic was formed.[5] Liberia is also moving rapidly toward self-sufficiency in the production of vegetables, vegetable oils, pepper, yams and tropical fruits. More poultry, hogs and other livestock are, however, needed to supply the animal proteins seriously deficient in the present Liberian diet.

Sufficient land is available for the extensive production of food, but comparatively little use had been made of it even as late as 1944. In that year Liberia had to import 5,000 tons of rice from the United States and other surplus producers to supplement domestic production. Since then, however, rapid progress has been made by using improved agricultural methods, good seed and pedigreed livestock. Much credit in these respects is due to the United States Economic Mission to Liberia (1944), the Booker T. Washington Institute and the Firestone Plantations. Cassava (manioc, mandio acor yuca) is Liberia's second most important crop, and known in the United States as tapioca; yields need to be increased. The four-year intensive vegetable-production program fostered by the Economic Mission began to pay dividends in 1941. Tropical fruits constitute an important part of the 1949 agricultural program. Recently, much progress has been made in an increasing output of palm oil, used as food by the Liberians. The meat production does not offset the general protein deficiency in Liberia. There would appear to be a fine opportunity for establishing modern fishing operations in Liberia.

THE PEOPLE

The best estimates (1949) of Liberia's population are that on an area of 43,000 square miles live 1,600,000 people (90 per cent native Negro; 8 per cent American Negro; 1 per cent white and 1 one per

[5] Don Looper, "Liberal Agricultural Progress." *Foreign Agriculture*, Vol. XIV, No. 5 (May, 1950) p. 110.

cent others) with the density of 37 per square mile. Some 100,000 are today known as Americo-Liberians, descendants of American Negroes and other who have taken on their culture and are now associated with them in the coastal towns. The rest are Afro-Liberians living in tribal units in the "bush" territory of the interior.

The Americo-Liberians are settled in small towns in the narrow coastal strip or on the plateau escarpment which gradually rises inland for about 25 miles. They are mostly traders, workers in government offices or small businessmen. The well-to-do live in two-story, wooden houses with wide verandas reminiscent of old Southern domiciles in the United States. The social and cultural center of the republic is Monrovia, named in honor of American president James Monroe.

Protestantism is the dominant form of religion; there are also Moslems, Roman Catholics and followers of various tribal religions. Altho English is the official language, more than 20 different Negro dialects are spoken.

Education

The economic development of Liberia has been proceeding at a rapid pace during recent years, but it has been retarded by a grave shortage of trained workers. New roads are being built, the roadbeds of new railways are being laid, and the port of Monrovia is being modernized and yet Liberia's progress is seriously impeded by the lack of education on the part of most of its inhabitants. The problem of education is made more difficult and complex because of the ethnically varied population and the poor system of communication. Liberia's inhabitants speak at least 17 languages and dialects, even tho English is the official tongue. Legislation for compulsory education was enacted in 1912, but its complete enforcement never has been possible. In 1947, the government was spending four times as much for education as 10 years previously, and the total number of public schools had grown from 162 to 222 in a single year. But these schools are not sufficient for a country of more than 1,500,000. It is evident that the educational standards are low.

Foreign missions, especially American, are making significant contributions to Liberian education thru such excellent institutions as the Booker T. Washington Institute. Librarians are appreciative of the educational work of the larger mission organizations, but

they assert that some of the smaller mission schools are lower in quality even than their own schools.

HOPES FOR THE FUTURE

Negroes thruout the world look to Liberia for a demonstration of the ability of members of their race to govern themselves. The recent experiences of Liberia afford a world example of self-government, when colonial areas elsewhere are seeking independence or autonomy. The first ovation of the 1946 United Nations session was accorded the Liberian Attorney General, C. Abayomi Cassell, for a simple but eloquent speech on behalf of the world's little countries.

Liberia's motto is "The Love of Liberty Brought Us Here." Thru her controversial history, Liberia has retained her political freedom. At the same time, this Republic, an "African stepchild of the United States," has set the world an example of self-government, imperfect, perhaps, but durable.[8]

[8] For additional information to the authorities already cited, see: *Army Mission to Liberia*, Government Printing Office, Washington D.C., 1951; Karl R. Mayer, *Forest Resources of Liberia*, Agricultural Information Bulletin No. 67, U.S. Depart. Agriculture, Washington, D.C., 1951; "Liberia, Africa's First Republic, Repays the U.S. with Bases," *Geographic School Bulletin*, Vol. XXIII, No. 8 (November 20, 1944); Charles Henry Huberich, *The Political and Legislative History of Liberia*, Central Book Co., New York, 1947; "Liberia Celebrates Centennial as Republic," *Geographic School Bulletin*, Vol. XXVI, No. 1 (October, 1947); and "Liberia is African Stepchild in America," *Ibid.*, Vol. XXX, No. 11 (December 10, 1951).

RUSSIA OR U.S.S.R.?

EUGENE VAN CLEEF
Ohio State University

It may be well enough for the "man on the street" to use the term "Russia" when he means the U.S.S.R., but when a geographer does so the sin seems unpardonable. Would anyone in our country use the terms "New York," "Illinois," or "California" as synonymous with the U.S.A.? Some one may hurry to interpose, "That's different." Is it different?

Today, officially speaking, the U.S.S.R. consists of 16 so-called "Republics" one of which is commonly named "Russia" or technically, Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republic. Presumably,

the government of the Soviet Union has a right to organize itself into such political units as pleases itself. Because it has decreed to employ as the name for one of its divisions, a name which once upon a time referred to the whole nation is no justifiable ground for continuing to use Russia in its wrong sense—certainly not among an intellectual folk.

There are those who contend that "Russia" is more convenient to say than "U.S.S.R.," much less the protracted expression "Union of Soviet Socialist Republics." And there are those who argue that inasmuch as the R.S.F.S.R. contains the seat of the national government and is the largest in area and population of the republics it is legitimate to say "Russia" when we mean U.S.S.R. Again, we may hear it said, "Everybody knows what we mean when we say Russia, so why bother with saying U.S.S.R.?"

Of course it is the privilege of any person to use any nomenclature which pleases his fancy, provided he announces in advance what his intentions are. If he declares, "I am now going to discuss matters pertaining to the U.S.S.R., but I shall use the word Russia in its stead," he is on safe ground. He need not even provide a reason for his action. This procedure is quite as justifiable as calling a friend or a relative "Charlie" instead of his legally given name, "John," if we let John and others know what we are up to. In each of these instances the writer or speaker admits he has no desire to be legally correct.

These contentions, justifications, whims and other bases for deviating from the standard or the official nomenclature may satisfy millions of persons and, arguing "common usage" to be the criterion for the accepted meaning of a word, these persons are sincere in their continued erroneous ways. They sometimes reinforce their point of view by noting that the Press and outstanding reporters write "Russia" in place of U.S.S.R. They do not know that some members of the Press have indicated their recognition of the official name U.S.S.R. but have announced that for their personal convenience they deliberately substitute "Russia." Even if we were to grant as sound all these mis-uses by the masses, we as geographers can hardly tolerate an identical attitude among ourselves. Nor can we excuse our own error, when we commit it, on the ground of wishing not to give an impression of superior knowledge by being correct. If there be geographers who dissent, then we can only say they do a disservice to our science.

After World War I, many nations sought to gain official recognition by other nations, of the native names of their cities. For example Norway announced the abandonment of Christiania and its replacement by Oslo. Interestingly enough, the world promptly acceded to the request, and few if any of the younger generation are aware of the change. On the other hand "Eire" or "Ireland" asked that "Dublin" give way to "Baile Atha Cliath." But altho modern atlases show this name, hardly a person outside "Eire" uses that form—the probable reason is clear enough. The correct pronunciation of the native name is almost impossible by those unfamiliar with the Celtic language. Even so, this type of substitution for the correct name is of a different order from that of Russia for the U.S.S.R. The two forms are synonymous. They do not have different official meanings. A part is not substituted for the whole as in the case of Russia for the U.S.S.R.

Some years ago a group of geographers sought to develop a vocabulary unique to the geographic field. It was their feeling, as it still is in many quarters, that one, among many weaknesses in our science is the lack of a special vocabulary—a vocabulary which not only would give greater recognition to the science but would provide it with greater precision. A few words were born of this effort, albeit some have long since met their demise. If the objective of those geographers was laudable, as many believe, as representing an effort to advance the accuracy and orderliness of their field, can there be any valid reason for perpetuating inaccuracies when the accurate is known?

The United States Board of Geographic Names "in editing materials for accuracy and consistency of geographic names . . . permits the abbreviation 'U.S.S.R.' and the term 'Soviet Union' for the present-day entity, but limits the use of 'Russia' to references to pre-Soviet Russia." Again, "We recommend 'Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republic,' or the abbreviation 'R.S.F.S.R.' for the largest of the Soviet republics."* So states the Executive Secretary of the Board. This recognition by the Board ought to serve as a sufficiently authoritative basis for anyone to employ the term "Russia" correctly and without embarrassment. Certainly for the geographer there is no alternative; nor need he be apologetic for being correct.

* Quoted from correspondence.

ON THE VALUE OF SKETCH MAPS

ROBERT B. McNEE
The City College of New York

Sketch maps, i.e., diagrammatic maps or cartograms, are one of the cheapest and most useful of geographic teaching devices. Yet sketch maps are not widely used in American schools. Why is this so? What specific teaching values are achieved with sketch maps? How may students be encouraged to use sketch maps?

Sketch maps are free hand maps drawn on blackboard or drawing pad to present geographc ideas and facts clearly and forcefully. Sketch mapping minimizes irrelevant detail and maximizes major geographic points. Thus such maps are the ultimate in geographic simplification. Yet the technique is so flexible that the most complex geographic ideas may be presented clearly.

The idea is not new. Excellent descriptions have appeared in the *Journal of Geography* (Helen Wright, "Diagrammatic Map Making," Vol. XXXIII, 1934, pp. 242-4; Erwin Raiz, "Draw your own Blackboard Maps," Vol. XLII, 1943, pp. 242-4). Why, then, aren't sketch maps more widely used? Outstanding reasons probably include: (1) the mistaken belief that great drawing ability is necessary (actually, great drawing ability tends to draw attention away from the geographic ideas presented and toward admiration of the teacher's skill), (2) excessive intellectual involvement with geographic details (i.e., preoccupation with the trees instead of the forest), (3) a misplaced reverence for the mathematical and mechanical exactness of maps (probably a reflection of the general American admiration for mechanical perfection), and (4) a lack of awareness of the great value of sketch maps.

What *are* the special values of sketch mapping? Frequently mentioned values include: (a) presentation is clearcut, direct, and simple, (b) presentation is rapid (a sketch map may often be drawn in less time than it takes to hang a wall map), (c) attention may be quickly gained and held while details are added and explained, step by step, in logical sequence (see Helen Wright, op. cit.), and (d) maximum range in variety of map data is permitted (wall maps and outline maps cannot be expected to meet all teaching needs). *Student participation*, tho less often stressed, is equally important: (e) the student learns to recognize maps as vehicles for ideas rather than as mere repositories for facts, (f) by doing, he

learns the fundamentals of mapping (such as the need to generalize, the importance of scale, the effect of distortions, etc.), (g) note taking is simplified, and (h), most important of all, the student is encouraged "to go and do likewise."

How may students be encouraged to use sketch maps? Constant use by the teacher is imperative. In addition, I have obtained excellent results by explaining and demonstrating the technique, then assigning sketch practicing on specific subjects as homework. Five-minute surprise quizes have yielded some truly amazing examples of student effort. Practice in sketching is encouraged by the use of "Magic Slates" (sold for 25 cents in Variety Stores; produced by the Strathmore Co., Aurora, Illinois). These slates erase readily. They fascinate students of all ages. When major countries or continental areas are being studied, the area's outline may be drawn permanently on the outer sheet of the slate. Various distributions may then be readily sketched without redrawing the outline after each erasure. Either ink or a plastic paint (such as Craftint's Decowrite) may be used for the permanent outline.

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL AT WORK

Final details for the annual meeting at Indianapolis, November 24-26, have been completed. All grade levels thru college have been provided for by a variety of papers and sectional meetings. Members and non-members are cordially invited to participate in discussions. The open committee meetings will provide a mutually worthwhile exchange of ideas and aid chairmen in furthering contributions in geographic education by the National Council.

There are many opportunities for willing and able members to take an active part in the work of the National Council. If you have the time and interest to take on some of the real tasks in committee work, please let your light shine! Do write to the President of NCGT and indicate the grade level and topics or areas of interest. Many hands and minds make the whole load lighter and should bring to completion useful studies, reports, and projects.

M. MELVINA SVEC, *President*

It has been a year since the names of NCGT Coordinators have appeared in the JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY. This term we welcome seventeen new officers, three of whom are from the Canadian provinces of British Columbia, Manitoba, and Ontario.

NCGT Coordinators are appointed by the Director of Coordinators with the approval of the Executive Board for a term of three years. These Coordinators provide the liaison between NCGT and other educational organizations in their state or province to promote better geographic education. They assist in arranging programs and providing speakers. Some serve on curriculum committees. Many Coordinators prepare articles on geographic education for state educational journals. Others help to organize state, local,

and junior councils or clubs. Each year the Coordinators report on the status of teacher certification, in-service opportunities such as workshops, field trips, and programs in each state and province.

Why don't *you* write to your Coordinator and share your ideas on how geographic education program might be improved? What are the ways and means of increasing the geographic understandings of boys and girls and all students so that they have a better idea of the world in which they live? The Coordinators need the cooperation and help of all the membership in their state and province. The complete list of Coordinators as of today follows.

Mamie L. Anderzhon, *Director of Coordinators*

STATE COORDINATORS—SEPTEMBER 1955

Alabama: J. M. Richardson, Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn
Arizona: George T. Renner, 3rd, Arizona State College, Tempe
Arkansas: C. M. Strack, Henderson State College, Arkadelphia
California: John W. Reith, University of Southern California, Los Angeles
Colorado: Eugenia W. Tuttle, Box 24, Estes Park
Connecticut: Pauline Schwartz, State Teachers College, New Haven
District of Columbia: William Jenkins, Wilson Teachers College, Washington, D.C.
Florida: Mary Bostick, Florida State University, Tallahassee
Georgia: James A. Barnes, University of Georgia, Athens
Idaho: Harry H. Caldwell, University of Idaho, Moscow
Illinois: C. W. Sorensen, Illinois State Normal University, Normal
Indiana: G. David Koch, State Teachers College, Terre Haute
Iowa: Mary Beecher, Traer Public Schools, Traer
Kansas: Grace Starlin, 721 W. 8th Street, Newton
Kentucky: R. Paul Terrell, Western Kentucky Teachers College, Bowling Green
Louisiana: Bonnie Mae Smith, City Public Schools, Lake Charles
Maine: Paul V. Salley, State Teachers College, Gorham
Maryland: Oliver H. Laine, State Teachers College, Towson
Massachusetts: Ada M. Shawkey, State Teachers College, Farmingham
Michigan: Fred F. Dohrs, Wayne University, Detroit
Minnesota: Hildegard Binder Johnson, Macalester College, St. Paul
Mississippi: Carol Brumby, Delta State Teachers College, Cleveland
Missouri: Sidney E. Ekblaw, University of Kansas City, Kansas City
Montana: Nicholas Helburn, Route #3, Bozeman
Nebraska: Esther Anderson, University of Nebraska, Lincoln
Nevada: Mrs. Thelma Flavin, Las Vegas, Blair House, Desert Inn Road
New England: St. Lawrence Geographical Conference. Minnie Lemaire, Secretary, Mount Holyoke College, South Hadley, Massachusetts
New Hampshire: Trevor Lloyd, Dartmouth College, Hanover
New Jersey: Adelbert K. Botts, State Teachers College, Trenton
New Mexico: Wilfrid Kelley, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque
New York: Howard H. Flierl, State University College for Teachers, Albany
North Carolina: Robert Cramer, East Carolina College, Greenville
North Dakota: Viola M. Bohm, 1028 Twelfth Street, Bismarck
Ohio: John Wesley Coulter, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati
Oklahoma: Gordon M. Harrel, East Central State College, Ada
Oregon: John Dart, Portland State College, Portland
Pennsylvania: Mary Viola Phillips, Senior High School, New Kensington
Rhode Island: Marion L. Wright, Rhode Island College of Education, Providence

South Carolina: Julian J. Petty, University of South Carolina, Columbia
South Dakota: Charlotte N. Noteboom, University of South Dakota, Vermillion
Tennessee: Marie Harrison, East Tennessee State College, Johnson City
Texas: Florence Cullin, North Texas State College, Denton
Utah: S. Elliott Budge, 1201 Ridgedale Lane, Salt Lake City
Vermont: Rowland Illick, Middlebury College, Middlebury
Virginia: Sidman P. Poole, University of Virginia, Charlottesville
Washington: Robert Funderburk, Central Washington College, Ellensburg
West Virginia: Sam E. Clagg, Marshall College, Huntington
Wisconsin: Clarence Olmstead, University of Wisconsin, Madison

CANADA

British Columbia: J. Lewis Robinson, University of British Columbia, Vancouver
Manitoba; Neville V. Scarfe, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg
Ontario: J. W. Hamilton, 95 Edgecroft Road, Toronto

FELLOWS

The membership of the NATIONAL COUNCIL GEOGRAPHY TEACHERS consists of Annual, Contributing, and Honorary Members.

"Any member in good standing for five (5) consecutive years shall be designated as a FELLOW of the NATIONAL COUNCIL GEOGRAPHY TEACHERS." (Constitution).

The following persons have attained this status since January 1955.

January, 1955

Herbert D. Reas, Washington
N. Walker Wright, Iowa
Julia Ziskowski, Connecticut
Wm. E. Powers, Illinois
Main Library, University of Manitoba, Canada
Henry P. Matherne (Mrs.), Louisiana

February, 1955

Dr. Paula Spitts Bucking, Ellhornstr 17, Germany

March, 1955

James R. Wray, Illinois
Andrew L. Scott, North Carolina
Arthur Parkes, New Zealand

April, 1955

James D. Patzer, Illinois

June, 1955

Wm. H. Sadlier, Inc., New York
Ruth A. Schindler, Michigan
Dale E. Thomas, Pennsylvania
Rev. J. Gerard Aumont, Quebec, Canada
James S. Matthews, Tennessee
Blanche O. Cullumber, Kansas
Laurence G. Wolf, Ohio
Donald R. Dyer, Florida
Mrs. Homer Phillips, Ohio
Zita Mueller, Indiana

August, 1955

Irene L. Hammers, Pennsylvania
Dr. Carl George Winter, California
Phyllis R. Boucher, Massachusetts
Robert E. Dachn, Illinois
Nellie A. Busey, Illinois
Norman L. Westling, Washington
West High School, Social Studies, Wisconsin
Walter MacInnis, New Jersey
Dra Concepcion Labrada Bernal, Habana, Cuba
D. Dorcas Orem, Indiana

INA CULLOM ROBERTSON, *Secretary, NCGT*

GEOGRAPHICAL PUBLICATIONS

E. L. Jordan, **Hammond's Pictorial Travel Atlas of Scenic America.** C. S. Hammond and Company, Maplewood, New Jersey, 1955. 256 pages with 97 maps and 200 color photographs. $10.00.

This is an atlas with a single purpose and all parts of the book contribute directly to the achievement of that purpose. The author and publisher obviously had the touring public in mind when this book was prepared, and everything in it trys to stimulate interest in travel, suggest places to travel, recommend things to see while traveling and provide practical travel advice for the prospective tourist.

Maps are clear-cut, neatly made, attractive and readable. The photographs justify the name "Scenic Atlas." They are abundant, well chosen and splendidly reproduced.

The textual part of the atlas is rather disappointing. It is superficial and uncritical. The author certainly geared the material to the ability of immature minds. The text in general, might be described as a strictly "non-intellectual" pseudo-geography of North America. At his best, the author presents an interesting as well as an informative treatment of places to be visited. His explanation of the use of the tree-rings calendar to help interpret the history of the cliff dwellers (p. 167) is very satisfying. On the other hand, he is generally so scrupulous about avoiding technical terms and concepts that the text only entertains without informing. His statement that the Finger Lakes are the region where, "The Supreme Being pressed the fingers of his hand into the soil, and the cavities filled with pure water," is a case in point. Isn't the true story of the origin of the Finger Lakes just as fascinating and understandable as this fable? It would seem that the text of a book as important as this should have been read critically by geographers before publication. Extravagant if not wholly inaccurate statements could have been corrected without injuring the spontaneous, readable style of the author.

State Teachers College
Trenton 5, New Jersey

Adelbert K. Botts

Oliver H. Heintzelman and Richard M. Highsmith, Jr. **World Regional Geography.** Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1955. x and 357 pages with illustrations, maps, bibliographies and index. $6.75.

The first of 15 chapters is devoted to the nature and elements of geography, 22 pages. Following this the world is divided into 14 regions on a climatic basis: Rainy Tropics, Wet-Dry Tropics, Monsoon Tropics, Tropical Deserts, Tropical Highlands, Dry Summer Subtropics, Humid Subtropics, Long Summer Humid Continentals, Short Summer Humid Continentals, Dry Continentals, Marine West Coasts, Middle Latitude Highlands, Subarctics and Polar Lands. A chapter is devoted to each in which the authors describe the physical environment, analyze man's adjustment to it, and follow with a short prediction of the future. A typical chapter outline is that for the Monsoon Tropics—*Location; Physical environment*, climate, surface features, natural vegetation, native animal life, soils; *Man in the Monsoon Tropics*, subsistence agriculture, commercial agriculture, grazing, forest industries, mining, manufacturing, urban centers; *Outlook*.

Each page has two columns with type that is easy to read. The text is well illustrated. Three hundred and fifty-four illustrations include a black and white world map for each region; physiographic diagrams and other maps of continental regional sections; climatic charts for each chapter; and many large photographs which will attract student attention. The relatively brief treatment of each large region will give ample opportunity for the teacher to fill in more regional details.

Earl B. Shaw
State Teachers College
Worcester, Massachusetts

Margaret R. Shackleton. **Europe, A Regional Geography.** Fifth Edition. Longmans, Green and Co., New York and London, 1954. xvi and 525 pages with maps, illustrations, appendices and index. $5.50.

In the 20-year span since the publication of the first edition of Shackleton's *Europe*, the book has enjoyed wide use as a text. The fourth edition issued in 1950 incorporated changes necessitated by World War II, particularly the expansion of the section on Eastern Europe. The present edition, the fifth, was revised under the supervision of Professor W. Gordon East, following the death of Miss Shackleton. No significant changes are noted in the present volume, but statistical tables in the text and in the appendices have been brought up to date.

This book is one of the best available for the study of Europe in university classes. The organization is logical and well balanced; the text is concisely presented and is outstandingly readable. Altho the author emphasizes land forms and their significance, the historical background and current economic aspects of each country are adequately considered. Photographs are well chosen; maps and diagrams, particularly those illustrative of structure and morphology, supplement and clarify the text.

RUTH E. BAUGH

University of California
Los Angeles

Maurice Beresford. **The Lost Villages of England.** Lutterworth Press, London and Philosophical Library, New York, 1954. 445 pages with tables, maps and illustrations. $12.00.

It seems strange that in a country as well known and intensively studied as England, it should be possible to talk of "lost villages" and to write a substantial volume of 450 pages about them. Indeed, as recently as 1946 the late Sir John Clapham, one of the greatest of recent historians, in his *Concise Economic History of Great Britain* was able to write, "deserted villages are singularly rare." It had long been known that many settlements mentioned in Domesday (1086) could not be identified at the present day but the presumption was a change of name and hence a loss of identity. Mr. W. Maurice Beresford, Lecturer in Economic History in the University of Leeds, has become the leader of a small band of field workers who have made full use of the new weapon—large scale aerial photographs—combined with an intensive study of maps old and new but who, above everything else, have tramped the countryside with wide open eyes and inquisitive minds. They have learned to query the meaning of grass-covered mounds, of paths and lanes with little apparent purpose and their results are truly surprising.

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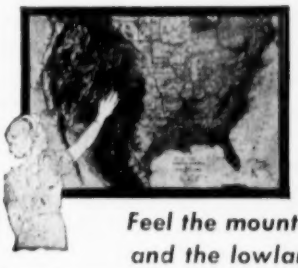

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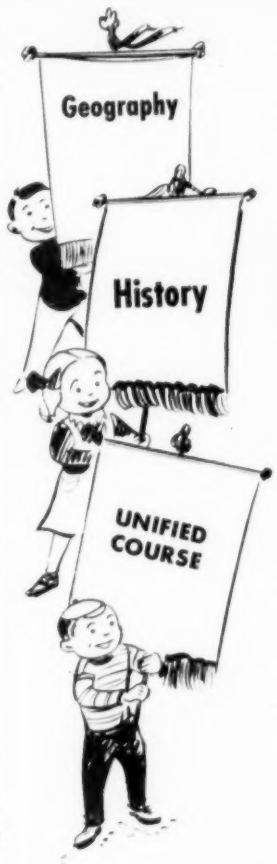

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